

ON THE EQUATION $\nabla \times \mathbf{a} = \kappa \mathbf{a}$

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Abstract

We show that when correctly formulated the equation $\nabla \times \mathbf{a} = \kappa \mathbf{a}$ does not exhibit some inconsistencies attributed to it, so that its solutions can represent physical fields.

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Let us consider the *free* Maxwell equations:

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}, \quad \nabla \times \vec{B} = \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}. \quad (2)$$

We want to look for solutions of Maxwell equations which describe *stationary* electromagnetic configurations – in the sense that the energy of the field does not propagate. In order to obtain one such stationary solution it is sufficient to find solutions of the vector equation

$$\nabla \times \vec{a} = \kappa \vec{a}, \quad \kappa \text{ constant}. \quad (3)$$

In fact, if we are looking for stationary solutions then in the rest frame we can make the following *ansatz*:

$$\vec{E} = \vec{a} \sin \kappa t, \quad \vec{B} = \vec{a} \cos \kappa t. \quad (4)$$

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All Maxwell equations are automatically satisfied within this *ansatz* for \vec{a} satisfying the vector equation (3). The solution is obviously stationary since the Poynting vector $\vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{B} = 0$. It also follows that \vec{E} and \vec{B} satisfy the same equation:

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = \kappa \vec{E}, \quad \nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \vec{B}. \quad (5)$$

The vector equation $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \vec{B}$ is very important in plasma physics and astrophysics, and can also be used as a model for force-free electromagnetic waves [1].

The identification of solutions of the eq.(3) with physical fields (as in eq.(4) above) has been criticized by Salingaros [2]. In particular, he discussed the question of violation of gauge invariance and of parity invariance. The inconsistencies have been identified in [2] with the lack of covariance of the eq.(3) with respect to transformations. Our proposal in this letter is to show that there is *no* violation of gauge invariance and of parity invariance.

The argument leading to the lack of gauge invariance [2] runs as follows. From $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \vec{B}$ we have, since $\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$, that $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \nabla \times \vec{A}$, and then $\vec{B} = \kappa \vec{A} + \nabla \phi$. Now, in [2] it was argued that for $\vec{B}' = \kappa \vec{A}' + \nabla \phi = \kappa(\vec{A} + \nabla \lambda) + \nabla \phi = \vec{B} + \kappa \nabla \lambda$, that is, gauge invariance requires $\kappa = 0$ or the specific gauge $\lambda = 0$. The mistake in this argument is easily identified since for $\vec{B}' = \nabla \times \vec{A}'$ we have $\vec{B} = \kappa \vec{A}' + \nabla \psi$, where the arbitrary function ψ must *not* be identified *a priori* with ϕ . In this case $\vec{B}' = \kappa(\vec{A} + \nabla \lambda) + \nabla \psi = \kappa \vec{A} + \kappa \nabla(\lambda + \psi) = \kappa \vec{A} + \kappa \nabla \phi = \vec{B}$.

The argument used in [2] leading to the lack of parity invariance is that since \vec{B} is a parity eigenvector of even parity [3] and since under upon reflection we have $\nabla \mapsto -\nabla$ then $\kappa \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{B} \mapsto \kappa \vec{B} = -\nabla \times \vec{B}$, $\vec{B} = -\vec{B} = 0$, which means that solutions of $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \vec{B}$ must necessarily *not* be a parity eigenvector, and then they cannot be associated with neither \vec{E} nor \vec{B} since both fields have definite parity. The origin of the mistake in this case is not trivial, and requires a detailed explanation.

The problem in the above argument is essentially due to the definition of the vector product \times in the usual Gibbs-Heaviside vector algebra. The usual definition of the vector product $\vec{v} \times \vec{u}$ as

$$(v_1, v_2, v_3) \times (u_1, u_2, u_3) = (v_2 u_3 - v_3 u_2, v_3 u_1 - v_1 u_3, v_1 u_2 - v_2 u_1) \quad (6)$$

is a *nonsense* since it equals a pseudo-vector (L.H.S.) and a vector (R.H.S.). This nonsense is therefore also expected in the definition of $\nabla \times \vec{v}$:

$$\nabla \times \vec{v} = \left(\frac{\partial v_3}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_3} - \frac{\partial v_3}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial x_1} - \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_2} \right). \quad (7)$$

In other words, in the Gibbs-Heaviside vector algebra the vector product of two vector $\vec{v}, \vec{u} \in V \simeq \mathbb{R}^3$ is the mapping $\times : (\vec{v}, \vec{u}) \mapsto \vec{w}$. Obviously \vec{w} cannot belong to the same space V where \vec{v} and \vec{u} live because \vec{w} is a pseudo-vector. So, let us call this new vector space V^\times . We also have the vector product of vectors and pseudo-vectors, $\times : V \times V^\times \rightarrow V$ and $\times : V^\times \times V \rightarrow V$. The non-specification of these two spaces V and V^\times in the usual presentation produces nonsense. If we usually identify V and V^\times as in eq.(6) and consider the sum $\vec{v} + \vec{v}^\times = \vec{z}$, then under reflection is \vec{z} a vector or a pseudo-vector? Obviously this means that the usual vector product is a nonsense.

One formalism we can use which is free from the above inconsistency is the one of *differential forms* [4], or the Cartan calculus. Given the 1-forms $\{dx^i\}$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$) and the vector fields $\{\partial_j = \partial/\partial x^j\}$ ($j = 1, 2, 3$) such that

$$\partial_j \lrcorner dx^i = dx^i(\partial_j) = \delta_j^i, \quad (8)$$

we can construct 1-forms \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{u} as

$$\mathbf{v} = v_i dx^i, \quad \mathbf{u} = u_i dx^i. \quad (9)$$

The exterior product gives the 2-form

$$\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u} = (v_1 u_2 - v_2 u_1) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 + (v_2 u_3 - v_3 u_2) dx^2 \wedge dx^3 + (v_1 u_3 - v_3 u_1) dx^1 \wedge dx^3. \quad (10)$$

In order to relate this expression with the vector product we need the so called Hodge operator \star [4]. If we denote the volume element by τ ,

$$\tau = dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge dx^3 \quad (11)$$

then we have that

$$\star(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u} \wedge \cdots \wedge \mathbf{w}) = \vec{w} \lrcorner (\cdots \lrcorner (\vec{u} \lrcorner (\vec{v} \lrcorner \tau)) \cdots), \quad (12)$$

where $\vec{v} = \varphi(\mathbf{v})$, etc., and φ is the isomorphism given by

$$\varphi(dx^i) = \partial_i. \quad (13)$$

Explicitly we have

$$\star dx^1 = dx^2 \wedge dx^3, \quad \star dx^2 = dx^3 \wedge dx^1, \quad \star dx^3 = dx^1 \wedge dx^2, \quad (14)$$

$$\star(dx^2 \wedge dx^3) = dx^1, \quad \star(dx^3 \wedge dx^1) = dx^2, \quad \star(dx^1 \wedge dx^2) = dx^3. \quad (15)$$

It follows that $\star(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u})$ is the 1-form

$$\star(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u}) = (v_2 u_3 - v_3 u_2) dx^1 + (v_3 u_1 - v_1 u_3) dx^2 + (v_1 u_2 - v_2 u_1) dx^3, \quad (16)$$

which we recognize as the counterpart of the vector product. If we work with $\star(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u})$ then if we take $dx^i \mapsto -dx^i$ we have $\star(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u}) \mapsto -\star(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u})$ while $\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u} \mapsto \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u}$. This is because the volume element τ used in the definition of \star also changes sign, $\tau \mapsto -\tau$.

Now, the electric field is represented by a 1-form \mathbf{E} given by

$$\mathbf{E} = E_1 dx^1 + E_2 dx^2 + E_3 dx^3, \quad (17)$$

but the magnetic field is represented by a 2-form \mathbf{B}

$$\mathbf{B} = B_1 dx^2 \wedge dx^3 + B_2 dx^3 \wedge dx^1 + B_3 dx^1 \wedge dx^2. \quad (18)$$

The fact that the magnetic field *must* be represented by a 2-form follows from Faraday law of induction [5]. Note that for $dx^i \mapsto -dx^i$ we have $\mathbf{E} \mapsto -\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{B} \mapsto \mathbf{B}$. Note also that we can define a 1-form \mathbf{b} by

$$\mathbf{b} = \star \mathbf{B} = B_1 dx^1 + B_2 dx^2 + B_3 dx^3, \quad (19)$$

and in this case $\mathbf{b} \mapsto -\mathbf{b}$ for $dx^i \mapsto -dx^i$.

Consider the differential operator d , which can be defined by

$$d\mathbf{v} = \partial_i v_j dx^i \wedge dx^j, \quad d(\mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{u}) = (d\mathbf{v}) \wedge \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \wedge (d\mathbf{u}). \quad (20)$$

The codifferential operator δ is defined as

$$\delta = \star d \star. \quad (21)$$

We can easily verify the relations

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \vec{E} &\leftrightarrow \star d\mathbf{E}, \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{E} &\leftrightarrow \delta\mathbf{E}, \\ \nabla \times \vec{B} &\leftrightarrow \delta\mathbf{B}, \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{B} &\leftrightarrow \star d\mathbf{B}. \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

The vector equation $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \vec{B}$ must be written as

$$\delta\mathbf{B} = \kappa \star \mathbf{B}. \quad (23)$$

The operators d and δ are such that $d \mapsto -d$ and $\delta \mapsto -\delta$ for $dx^i \mapsto -dx^i$. Then we have that

$$\delta\mathbf{B} = \kappa \star \mathbf{B} \mapsto (-\delta)(\mathbf{B}) = \kappa(-\star)(\mathbf{B}), \quad (24)$$

and no problem appears within the parity of \mathbf{B} . The same holds for the equation $\nabla \times \vec{E} = \kappa \vec{E}$ which reads $d\mathbf{E} = \kappa \star \mathbf{E}$, and transforms as

$$d\mathbf{E} = \kappa \star \mathbf{E} \mapsto (-d)(-\mathbf{E}) = \kappa(-\star)(-\mathbf{E}). \quad (25)$$

In summary, when correctly formulated in terms of differential forms, that is, the electric field being represented by a 1-form and the magnetic field being represented by a 2-form, the vector equation $\nabla \times \vec{a} = \kappa \vec{a}$ does not show any problem related to violation of parity invariance.

Moreover, since the calculus with differential forms is *intrinsic* [4], it does *not* depend on our coordinate system choice. We remember, however, that the vector equations $\nabla \times \vec{E} = \kappa \vec{E}$ and $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \kappa \vec{B}$ emerged from a separation of variables which is expected to hold only in the rest frame.

In conclusion, when correctly formulated, the vector equation $\nabla \times \vec{a} = \kappa \vec{a}$ does not deserve any of Salingaros' criticisms [2].

Before we end we recall that being $\langle x^\mu \rangle$ ($\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$) Lorentz coordinates of Minkowski spacetime, the Maxwell equations can be written as

$$d\mathbf{F} = 0, \quad \delta\mathbf{F} = -\mathbf{J}, \quad (26)$$

where $\mathbf{F} = (1/2)F_{\mu\nu}dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$ and $\mathbf{J} = J_\mu dx^\mu$, with

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & E_1 & E_2 & E_3 \\ -E_1 & 0 & -B_3 & B_2 \\ -E_2 & B_3 & 0 & -B_1 \\ -E_3 & -B_2 & B_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad J_\mu = (\rho, -j_1, -j_2, -j_3). \quad (27)$$

The force-free equation appears, e.g., in the tentative to construct purely electromagnetic particles (PEP), as done, for example, in [6,7]. Following Einstein [8], Poincaré [9] and Ehrenfest [10] a PEP must be free of self-force. Then the current vector field $\underline{J} = J^\mu \partial_\mu$ must satisfy

$$\underline{J} \lrcorner \mathbf{F} = 0, \quad (28)$$

or in vector notation,

$$\rho \vec{E} = 0, \quad \vec{j} \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \vec{j} \times \vec{B} = 0. \quad (29)$$

From eq.(29) Einstein concluded that the only possible solution of eq.(26) with the condition given by eq.(28) is that $\underline{J} = 0$. However, this conclusion only holds if we assume that \underline{J} is time-like. If we assume that \underline{J} may be space-like (as, for example, in London's theory of

superconductivity) then there exists a reference frame where $\rho = 0$, and a possible solution of eq.(28) is

$$\rho = 0, \quad \vec{E} \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \vec{j} = kC\vec{B}, \quad (30)$$

where $k = \pm 1$ is called the chirality of the solution and C is a real constant. In [6,7] stationary solutions of eq.(26) with the condition (28) are exhibited with $\vec{E} = 0$. In this case we verify that

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = kC\vec{B}. \quad (31)$$

What is interesting to observe is that from the solutions of eq.(31) found in [6,7] we can obtain solutions of the free Maxwell equations. Indeed, it is enough to put $\vec{E}' = \vec{B} \cos \Omega t$ and $\vec{B}' = \vec{B} \sin \Omega t$, as discussed in the beginning. In [11] we found also stationary solutions of Maxwell equations. Other solutions can be found with the methods described in [12].

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